



# H-doped TiO<sub>2-x</sub> prepared with MgH<sub>2</sub> for highly efficient solar-driven hydrogen production



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## ABSTRACT

Efficient utilization of visible light with high stability remains a critical challenge for solar-driven photochemical generation of hydrogen (H<sub>2</sub>) using particulate photocatalysts. Black TiO<sub>2</sub> was introduced with remarkable enhancement of visible light absorption, but its efficiency in the visible light has not reached the desired level for real-world applications. Here we report a gold-colored H-doped TiO<sub>2-x</sub> (H:TiO<sub>2-x</sub>) nanoparticles prepared by controlled reduction via simultaneous presence of [Mg] and [H], which are obtained from the decomposition of MgH<sub>2</sub>. The H-doped TiO<sub>2-x</sub> exhibits a significant activity (16.1 mmol g<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>) and remarkable stability after Pt deposition for solar-driven H<sub>2</sub> generation from methanol-water. The excellent photoactivity of H-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> can be attributed to oxygen vacancies and H doping at the reduced TiO<sub>2-x</sub> surface generated by [Mg] and [H]. The H-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> is also producing H<sub>2</sub> from methanol-seawater with a rate of 6.1 mmol g<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup> under simulated sunlight.

## 1. Introduction

Alternate energy resources are the prime concern of the present generation, and hydrogen (H<sub>2</sub>) is one of the cleanest energy carriers as it produces only water as the main product upon oxidation [1–3]. Sunlight-induced H<sub>2</sub> production from water is one of the most desired solutions to this issue [4–6]. Among different approaches to sunlight-induced H<sub>2</sub> production from water, direct photochemical (PC) water splitting is the simplest and most practical compared to photovoltaic electrolysis (PVE) and photoelectrochemical (PEC) water splitting [7]. However, the utilization of sunlight is not as straight as the main usable part of the sunlight is visible (VIS) light (~46%), and there is a lack of photocatalyst system working efficiently for visible light-assisted photochemical hydrogen production. In this concern, the development of efficient photocatalyst system for sunlight-induced photochemical hydrogen production is one of the most challenging tasks in the present times.

TiO<sub>2</sub> is one of the most active and most studied photocatalysts for ultraviolet (UV) light-induced H<sub>2</sub> production [2,8–10]. Among the numerous approaches that were studied to modify TiO<sub>2</sub> for visible light-assisted H<sub>2</sub> production, development of black TiO<sub>2-x</sub> in recent past is one of the most encouraging findings [6,11–27]. Black or reduced TiO<sub>2</sub>

x showed dramatic increment in the light absorption in the visible and infrared (IR) region along with the UV light. However, the visible light activity for hydrogen production fails to accomplish the expectation. Despite this, there is a huge increment in UV light activity compared to the corresponding white TiO<sub>2</sub> [28]. Although the amount of UV light is small in sunlight, the overall sunlight activity of reduced black TiO<sub>2-x</sub> was promising and thus stimulated further research on the improvement of the materials. Different black TiO<sub>2-x</sub> materials with different fabrication methods have been reported, which resulted in improvement of visible light activity for H<sub>2</sub> production as well as overall sunlight activity that creates further hope. Therefore, it desires further investigation [13,17].

In this report, we present our recent findings on outstanding sunlight-induced H<sub>2</sub> production performance of platinized H-doped reduced TiO<sub>2-x</sub> (H:TiO<sub>2-x</sub>). We demonstrate a control reduction of commercial (Aldrich) nano-anatase TiO<sub>2</sub> by in-situ produced dual reducing agents ([Mg] and [H]) obtained from MgH<sub>2</sub> decomposition at 500 °C in Ar atmosphere for the first time. Previously, different metal hydrides like CaH<sub>2</sub>, NaBH<sub>4</sub>, NaH, were used to prepare reduced or black TiO<sub>2</sub> [12,14–17,21,29–31]. Most of the metal hydrides were used to release active hydrogen as a promising reductant [17]. Tominaka et al [12], used a fourfold molar excess of CaH<sub>2</sub> powder to prepare black TiO<sub>2</sub> at

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350 °C for 15 days. Later on, Zhu et al [21] prepared black TiO<sub>2</sub> with a crystalline core–amorphous shell structure reduced by CaH<sub>2</sub> at 400 °C, which exhibited 1.7 times higher H<sub>2</sub> production than the pristine white TiO<sub>2</sub>. NaBH<sub>4</sub> was also used extensively for the preparation of reduced TiO<sub>2</sub> by different approaches like dry method, wet method, and sol-gel method [15,15,16,17,30–34]. Most of the study explains that the release of active hydrogen from NaBH<sub>4</sub> is responsible for reduction, which creates oxygen vacancies and increases the photocatalytic activity. Another, interesting metal hydride is TiH<sub>2</sub>, which is also used as a reducing agent although it is used as a source of TiO<sub>2</sub> [35,36]. Zhu et al. produced hydrogenated blue titania by using TiH<sub>2</sub> as a reducing agent from P25 [36]. The prepared photocatalyst showed almost double photocatalytic activity than that of pristine P25. However, the concept of dual reducing agents from metal hydride was not realized earlier for the preparation of black or reduced TiO<sub>2</sub> although metal hydrides were used [12,13,16,17,36].

Recently, we have found that controlled magnesiothermic reduction of metal oxides in the presence of molecular H<sub>2</sub> (5% H<sub>2</sub>/Ar) produced reduced metal oxides with enhanced solar light absorbance and improved photo-assisted H<sub>2</sub> production ability [37,38]. It was observed that the high activity of TiO<sub>2-x</sub> [37] was achieved only when both Mg and H<sub>2</sub> were used in reducing conditions. This suggests that the simultaneous presence of two different reducing species generates more efficient photocatalyst, which creates quires of what would be the effect of the simultaneous presence of active [Mg] and [H] produced at the same time in a confined microenvironment on TiO<sub>2</sub> surface. However, in the case of the magnesiothermic reduction in the presence of H<sub>2</sub>, the active reducing species [Mg] and [H] are generated from the different origins such as bulk Mg metal and molecular H<sub>2</sub> and result in inhomogeneous distribution of the active species. To study the above hypothesis, we have chosen MgH<sub>2</sub> as it can offer fresh formation of active reducing species i.e. [Mg] and [H] at the same time on thermal decomposition. Also, the magnesiothermic reduction needed higher temperature (650 °C) due to high melting point of Mg, which resulted in phase impurity and low surface area. In current work, we have performed the experiment at 500 °C as decomposition of MgH<sub>2</sub> can be obtained at lower temperature (327 °C) [39]. MgH<sub>2</sub> is also quite stable in handling at ambient conditions unlike some other metal hydrides such as CaH<sub>2</sub> and NaH, which need special caution in handling [12,14,21].

## 2. Experimental methods

### 2.1. Preparation of H-doped TiO<sub>2-x</sub> (H:TiO<sub>2-x</sub>)

In a typical experiment, 4 g of commercial white anatase TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles (Sigma-Aldrich) is well mixed with the desired amount of MgH<sub>2</sub> (Alfa Aesar) and heated in Ar atmosphere at 500 °C for 8 h in a tube furnace. The obtained material was subjected to stirring in dilute HCl for 1 day to remove Mg species, and washed with water and ethanol. The washed material was collected, dried in the oven at 80 °C. Different molar ratios ( $x = 0.3, 0.5, 0.75$ , and 1) of MgH<sub>2</sub> with respect to TiO<sub>2</sub> were used to produce different colored reduced samples and named as RT-MH-x (where,  $x = 0.3, 0.5, 0.75$ , and 1). The materials were characterized with different techniques and used for the further experiment. For comparison, related reduced TiO<sub>2-x</sub> samples were also prepared using H<sub>2</sub>/Ar, Mg/Ar, and Mg/H<sub>2</sub>/Ar. In the case of using Mg/Ar or Mg/H<sub>2</sub>/Ar, the samples were heated at 650 °C for 8 h instead of 500 °C since metallic Mg starts to melt around at 600 °C and higher. As mentioned above, the reduction temperature is set at 500 °C unless otherwise specifically mentioned.

### 2.2. Characterization

Powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) pattern of the samples was recorded using a Rigaku Smartlab diffractometer with Cu-K $\alpha$  ( $\lambda = 0.15406$  nm)

operated at 40 kV and 30 mA at a scan rate of 4° min<sup>-1</sup>. Raman spectra of the samples were obtained from a Raman spectrometer (NICOLET ALMECA XR, Thermo Scientific) using 532 nm laser beam for excitation. High-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HR-TEM) and high-resolution scanning electron microscope (HR-SEM) images were collected using JEOL FE-2010, operated at 300 kV. Ultraviolet-visible-near infrared diffuse reflectance spectra (UV-VIS-NIR DRS) of the samples were recorded by using a UV-VIS-NIR spectrophotometer (CARY 5000, Agilent Technologies). X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) spectra were collected using an ESCALAB 250 XPS System with a monochromated Al K $\alpha$  (150 W) source. Photoluminescence spectra were obtained from a Cary Eclipse Fluorescence Spectrophotometer (Agilent Technologies). Solid-state magic angle spin (MAS) nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectra were acquired from a 600 MHz Solid-state NMR (14.1 T) spectrometer (Unity INOVA, Agilent Technologies, U.S.A.). Nitrogen adsorption–desorption isotherms were measured at –196 °C using a Micromeritics ASAP 2460 accelerated surface area and porosity analyzer after the samples were degassed at 150 °C to 20 mTorr for 12 h. The specific surface area was determined based on Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) method from nitrogen adsorption data in the relative pressure range from 0.05 to 0.2. ICP-OES analyses using iCAP7400 (Thermo Scientific) were carried out to know the Pt loading amount. Each of Pt-loaded samples was added to 10 ml of aqua regia and the Pt solution was diluted 10 times by water before the ICP analysis.

### 2.3. Photo-Deposition of Pt nanoparticles and H<sub>2</sub> production

Photocatalytic reactions were performed in a cylindrical quartz reactor under continuous Ar flow with a fixed rate using a projected side-face light beam. The maximum illuminated area was 15.75 cm<sup>2</sup> considering the cross-section of the cylindrical reactor containing 50 ml of solution. The produced H<sub>2</sub> was carried directly to a connected GC (Bruker 450) by Ar flow and determined by TCD detector. In a typical experiment, 20 mg of catalyst was dispersed in 20% 50 ml of methanol-water, and the desired amount of aqueous solution of H<sub>2</sub>PtCl<sub>6</sub> was added. The solution was subjected to light obtained by a 450 W Xe light source embedded with liquid IR filter for 2 h. Pt nanoparticles were photo-deposited with around 2–3 nm in size and nicely distributed on titania surface (Fig. S11). After Pt loading, the same solution was studied for H<sub>2</sub> generation under simulated sunlight (1 Sun, AM 1.5 G) obtained from a solar simulator.

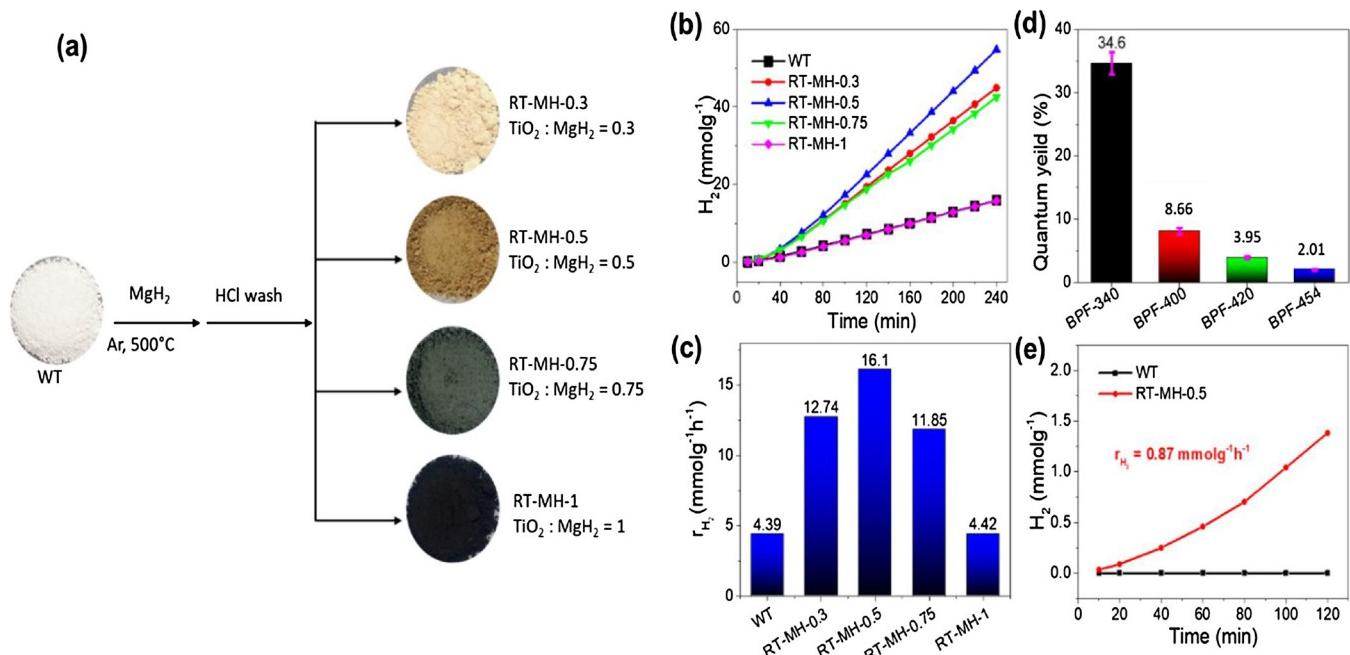
Pt-loading amount on RT-MH-0.5 samples was determined by ICP-OES analysis 0.11, 0.24, 0.49, and 0.96 wt% Pt loadings, which were termed 0.1, 0.25, 0.5, and 1 wt % Pt-loaded RT-MH-0.5, respectively.

### 2.4. Performance stability of the developed photocatalyst for H<sub>2</sub> production under simulated sunlight

The performance stability of the developed Pt-loaded H-doped TiO<sub>2-x</sub> photocatalyst was studied by identical reaction conditions as mentioned in the Experimental Section 2.3. 0.25% Pt-loaded RT-MH-0.5 was studied in two different sets of experiments. In the first set of the experiment, the reaction was run for continuous 50 h, and the 5 ml of methanol was added as H<sub>2</sub> production rate was slightly decreased, and the reaction was run again for another 50 h. In another set of experiment, the reaction was run for 4 h per day and continued for 25 days, and then the tested sample was stored in a closed dark bottle for 25 days and run again in the same way for another 25 days, i.e., a total of 200 h (50 run) of run in 75 days. Before every run, the 50 ml volume of the reaction solution was checked, and methanol was added if necessary to make up.

### 2.5. H<sub>2</sub> production from seawater under simulated sunlight

As seawater is the largest natural source of water on earth, the



**Fig. 1.** Synthesis and hydrogen production. (a) Schematic representation of the synthesis of reduced TiO<sub>2</sub> with corresponding color (photograph). (b) Continuous H<sub>2</sub> generation profiles and (c) rate of H<sub>2</sub> generation in the presence of 1% Pt as a co-catalyst from methanol-water under simulated sunlight (AM 1.5 G, 1 Sun) for different samples. (d) Quantum yields for the corresponding wavelengths and e, visible light-assisted H<sub>2</sub> production from methanol-water using RT-MH-0.5 and Pt as co-catalyst. Visible light was obtained by using a cut-on filter in the wavelength range of 395 to 780 nm.

developed photocatalyst system was validated using seawater instead of pure deionized water. In a typical procedure, collected seawater (pH ~8.5) was filtered using Whatman filter paper (grade 2) before use for hydrogen production in the presence of methanol as a sacrificial reagent. The platinized RT-MH-0.5 was dispersed in seawater, and the photochemical reaction was performed as mentioned in the Experimental section 2.3.

### 3. Results and discussion

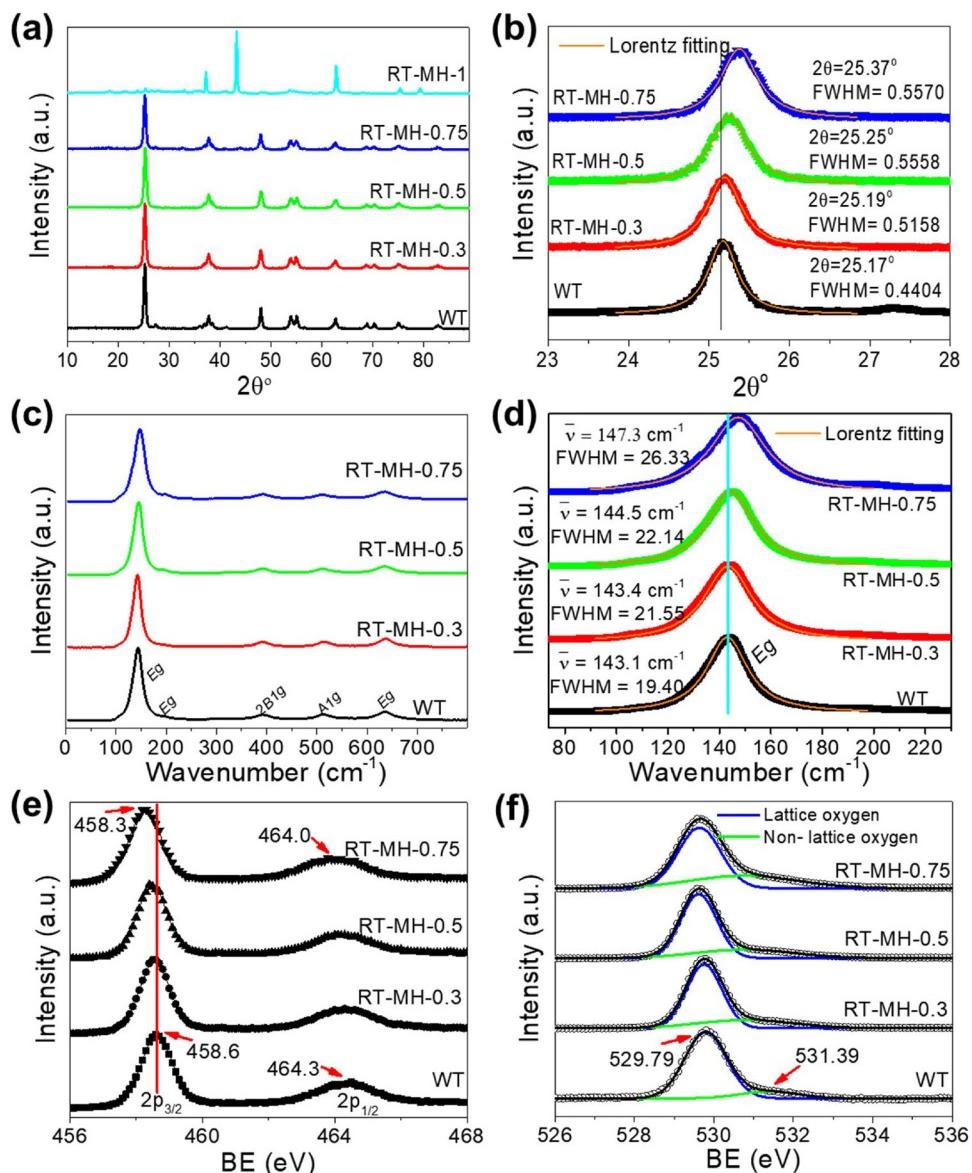
Different molar ratios of MgH<sub>2</sub> (x) and commercial white TiO<sub>2</sub> (WT) were used to produce different reduced samples (RT-MH-x, x = 0.3, 0.5, 0.75, and 1) with different color from white to yellow, gray, and black respect to MgH<sub>2</sub> amount (Fig. 1a). The different color is indicating the different extent of light absorbance as well as the extent of reduction. First, the prepared samples were studied for the H<sub>2</sub> production from methanol-water in the presence of Pt as a co-catalyst under simulated sunlight (Fig. 1b and c). The golden yellow RT-MH-0.5 sample exhibited the maximum rate ( $r_{H_2}$ ) of 16.1 mmol g<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup> which is ~3.6 times higher than that of WT (4.39 mmol g<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>) used in this study. The other samples also generated H<sub>2</sub> with a higher rate. As Pt was used as a co-catalyst, the amount of Pt was optimized and 0.25 wt% (weight percent) with respect to TiO<sub>2</sub> was found to be the minimum Pt amount to get the maximum activity for hydrogen production (Fig. S1). The observed quantum yield (QY) was 34.6% at 340 ± 10 nm, 8.66% at 400 ± 10 nm, 3.95% at 420 ± 10 nm and 2.01% at 454 ± 10 nm (Fig. 1d and Fig. S2), and further confirm noticeable contribution of visible light in the total H<sub>2</sub> production. This indicates the enormous enhancement in overall activity (including activity using UV and VIS light) after reduction. Previously, it was found that the UV light activity was fascinatingly increased in black or reduced TiO<sub>2</sub> compared to its pristine white TiO<sub>2</sub> due to increased donor density provided by oxygen vacancies formed in reduced samples [13,17,28]. To confirm, RT-MH-0.5 was studied further for only visible light-induced hydrogen production using a cut-on filter. WT shows no activity in the visible light (Fig. 1e), whereas the RT-MH-0.5 shows outstanding  $r_{H_2}$  of 0.87 mmol g<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 1e) which is almost 2 times higher than that of the

reduced TiO<sub>2-x</sub> prepared by magnesiothermic reduction in presence of H<sub>2</sub>/Ar (Table S1) [37]. The  $r_{H_2}$  value also outperforms the previously reported activity obtained from other reduced TiO<sub>2-x</sub> prepared by different methods. Here it should be noted that the activity of RT-MH-1 (Fig. 1c) was quite low compared to RT-MH-0.5 although the former shows black color and higher absorbance of VIS-IR light.

The samples were characterized by different techniques to understand the improved activities. XRD and Raman spectra were used to monitor the change in crystal structure induced by MgH<sub>2</sub> treatment. The XRD patterns (Fig. 2a) of all the reduced samples except RT-MH-1 indicate an anatase phase (JCPDS no. 21-1272), with a peak shifting towards the higher 2θ (Fig. 2b). Along with the peak shifting, the peak broadening is also observed as FWHM (Full width at half maxima) of the main anatase peak ( $2\theta = 25.2^\circ$ ) is increased in reduced sample (Fig. 2b). These observations indicate the decrease of the interplanar distance of the crystalline phase [17], and a slight reduction in crystallite size due to lattice disorder induced by oxygen vacancies [19,40]. For RT-MH-1 (Figs. 2a and S3), the formation of TiO with cubic crystal system are observed during the reduction in the presence of high amount of MgH<sub>2</sub>, suggesting that during reduction with up to the certain amount (< 1 mol ratio) of MgH<sub>2</sub>, the crystal structure of anatase TiO<sub>2</sub> remains unaltered.

Furthermore, the reduced samples were characterized by Raman spectroscopy. In comparison to WT, the Raman signals observed for reduced samples show a clear (Fig. 2c and d) peak shifting (from 143.1 to 147.3 cm<sup>-1</sup>) and broadening, which suggest the presence of oxygen vacancies [41]. The changes in Raman signals were also previously observed for black or reduced TiO<sub>2</sub> and attributed to the defects regarding oxygen vacancies or lattice disorder [17,42]. The phenomenon can be understood as the surface TiO<sub>6</sub> octahedral symmetry is destroyed via reduction of Ti<sup>4+</sup> and removal of oxygen during reduction, which agrees with the XRD results. Raman spectrum of RTMH-1 (Fig. S4) exhibits entirely new peaks like XRD signals, which confirm the prominent change in material from anatase TiO<sub>2</sub> to TiO.

Ti 2p XPS spectra (Fig. 2e) of all the samples show the peaks of Ti<sup>4+</sup> i.e. 2p<sub>3/2</sub> and 2p<sub>1/2</sub> at 458.6 and 464.0 eV, respectively [17]. A noticeable peak-shifting towards the lower binding energy of the Ti 2p



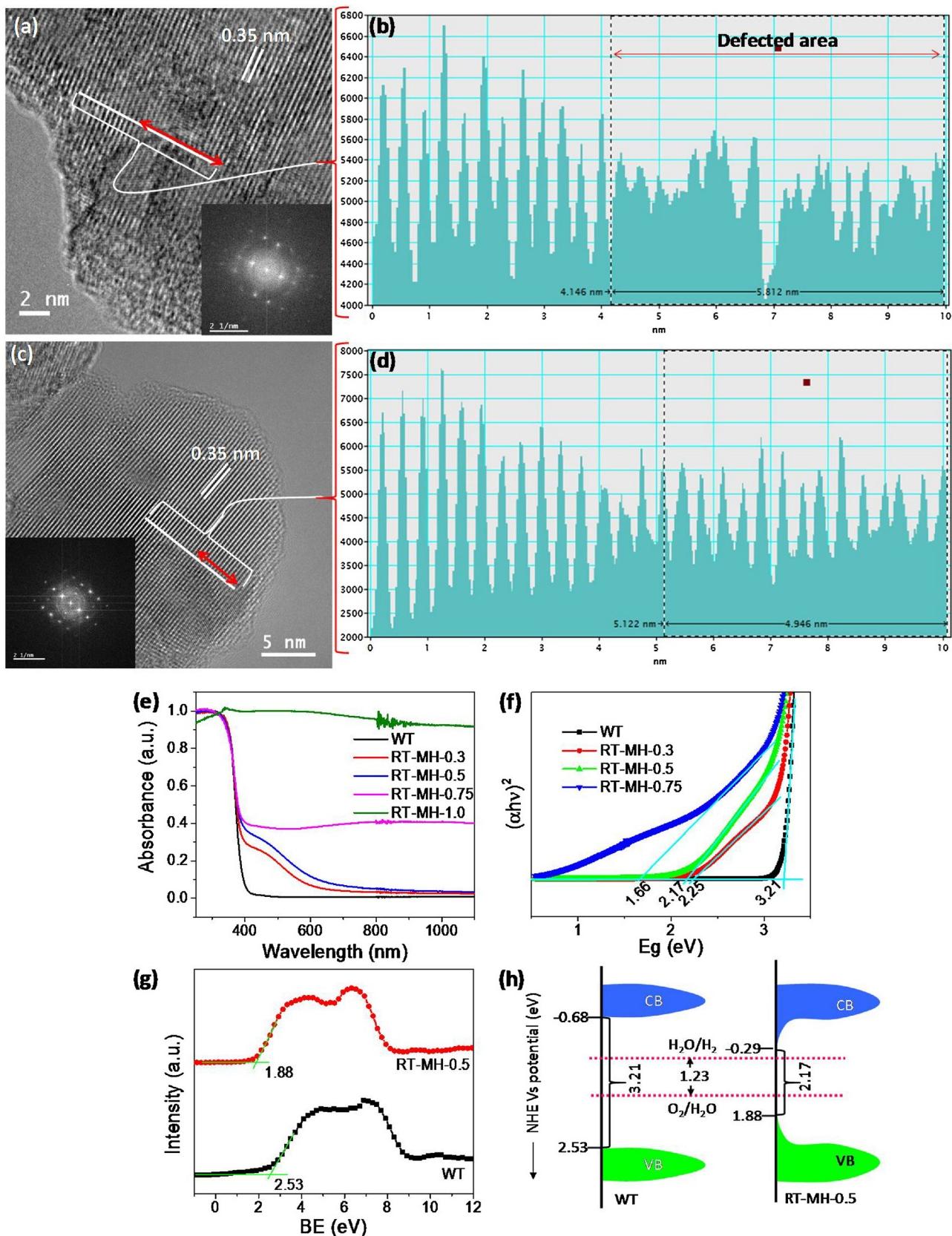
**Fig. 2.** Structural analysis,  $\text{Ti}^{3+}$  and oxygen vacancies. (a) Powder XRD patterns, (b) enlarged peak of  $2\theta = \sim 25.2^\circ$ , (c) Raman spectra and (d) enlarged strongest  $E_g$  peak of the different samples. High-resolution (e)  $\text{Ti} 2p$  and (f)  $\text{O} 1s$  XPS spectra of different samples.

peaks indicates the presence of  $\text{Ti}^{3+}$  in the reduced samples [17,43]. The amount of  $\text{Ti}^{3+}$  increases with the amount of  $\text{MgH}_2$  used, probably due to more reduction. In the  $\text{O} 1s$  XPS spectra (Fig. 2f), the signal for non-lattice oxygen corresponds mainly to surface hydroxyl groups [44]. Moreover, the relative % of non-lattice oxygen was increased with the amount of  $\text{MgH}_2$  (Table S2), indicating the increment of oxygen vacancy in the reduced samples as the oxygen vacancy at surface transform to hydroxyl groups via reaction with water in air [44]. Furthermore,  $\text{Mg} 1s$  XPS spectra (Fig. S5) confirm the absence of Mg in the final sample after HCl wash.

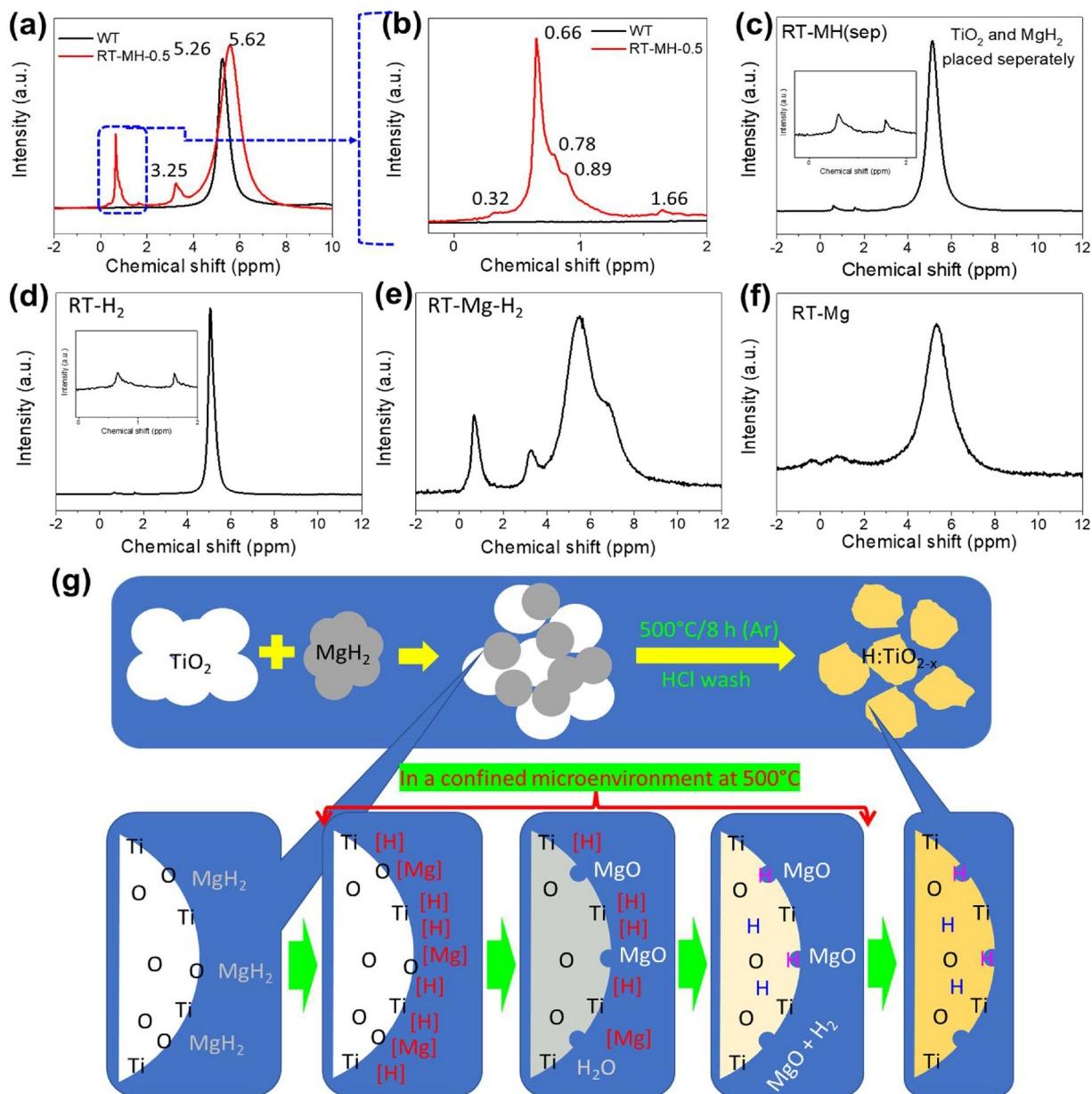
High resolution-transmission and scanning electron microscopic (HR-TEM and HR-SEM) analyses were further used to visualize the defects. The HR-TEM images (Figs. 3 and S6) of WT and RT-MH-0.5 show random defects on the particle, but the extent of defects is sufficiently increased for RT-MH-0.5. The corresponding line spectra (Fig. 3b and d) are further evidencing the lattice disorder in the defected area which satisfies the peak shifting and broadening in XRD and Raman spectra (Fig. 2a-d). Further, the FFT image (inset of Fig. 3a and c) corresponding to the RT-MH-0.5 is blurred compared to that of WT, which can also be attributed to presence of surface disorder [45]. The

corresponding selected area electron diffraction (SAED) patterns (Fig. S6c) of both the samples indicate the different planes of anatase  $\text{TiO}_2$  in agreement with XRD pattern. The obtained HR-SEM images (Fig. S7) also displayed more hollow area on surface of RT-MH-0.5 compared to that of WT.

The diffuse reflectance spectra (DRS) show an enhancement of absorption in the reduced samples compared to WT (Fig. 3e) in accordance with their color. Although the absorption is enhanced with the increase of  $\text{MgH}_2$  amount, the absorption patterns of the different samples are not identical (Fig. 3e). The yellowish RT-MH-0.3 and H-doped RT-MH-0.5 show a sharp absorption peak at around 400 nm like WT and an additional formation of a new slope towards visible light up to  $< 700$  nm, which justifies the yellow or golden color, but they do not show any absorption in IR region. The result indicates the formation of new shallow band states towards Fermi level to decrease the band gap. On the other hand, RT-MH-0.75 shows a continuously enhanced absorption in visible and IR light in addition to the sharp absorption at around 400 nm, and RT-MH-1 shows a continuous absorption of light in the full UV-VIS-IR region, justifying its black color. The band gap of the materials was calculated from Tauc plot (Fig. 3f). The WT shows a band



**Fig. 3.** Defects, Optical properties, and band structure. (a–b) HR-TEM image of RT-MH-0.5 (inset is corresponding FFT) with line profile of the selected area and (c–d) HR-TEM image of WT (inset is corresponding FFT) with line profile of the selected area. (e) Diffuse reflectance spectra (DRS) and (f) corresponding Tauc plots for different samples obtained from the absorption spectra. (g) Valence band XPS spectra of WT and RT-MH-0.5. (h) Probable band energy diagram (calculated from band gap and VB edge position) of WT and RT-MH-0.5 (the scales are arbitrary in the diagram).



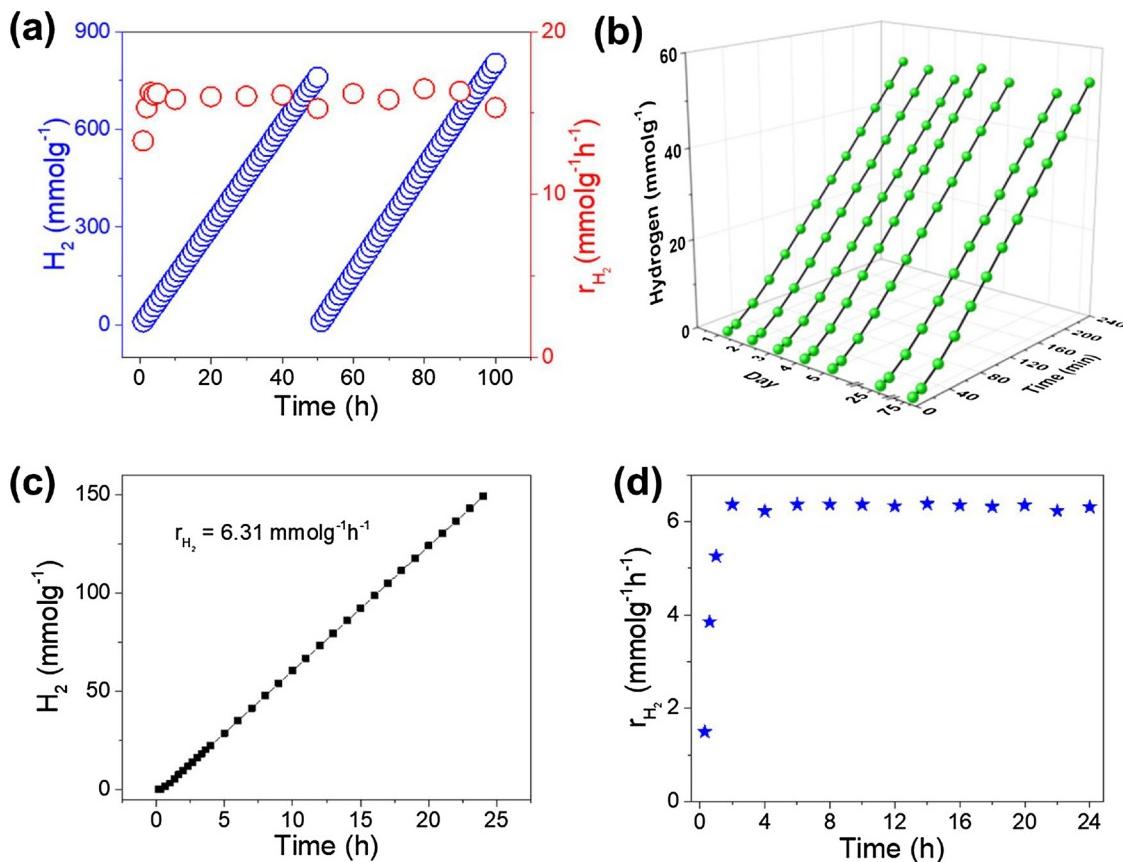
**Fig. 4.** Hydrogen doping and possible formation mechanism.  $^1\text{H}$  solid-state NMR spectra for (a–b) WT and RT-MH-0.5, (c) RT-MH (sep), (d) RT-H<sub>2</sub>, (e) RT-Mg-H<sub>2</sub>, (f) RT-Mg. RT-MH (sep): the sample was prepared by placing the  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{MgH}_2$  separately without homogeneous mixing in a ceramic boat and heated in Ar atmosphere. RT-H<sub>2</sub>: the sample was prepared by heating in 5%  $\text{H}_2/\text{Ar}$  atmosphere. RT-Mg-H<sub>2</sub>: the sample was prepared using magnesiothermic reduction in 5%  $\text{H}_2/\text{Ar}$  at  $650^\circ\text{C}$  (as metallic Mg melts after  $600^\circ\text{C}$ ). RT-Mg: the sample was prepared using magnesiothermic reduction in Ar atmosphere without  $\text{H}_2$  at  $650^\circ\text{C}$ . Otherwise, the reduction temperature is set at  $500^\circ\text{C}$  as mentioned in Methods. (g) A pictorial presentation of the probable process during  $\text{MgH}_2$  reduction of  $\text{TiO}_2$  leading to  $\text{H:TiO}_{2-x}$ .

gap of 3.21 eV, whereas the reduced materials show 2.25, 2.17 and 1.66 eV for RT-MH-0.3, 0.5 and 0.75, respectively from different patterns of Tauc plot with two slopes, unlike WT.

The valence band (VB) XPS (Fig. 3g) of the RT-MH-0.5 displays a prominent shift of peak edge towards lower binding energy compared to WT, which indicates the shifting of VB top towards Fermi level due to the formation of new energy states near to VB. Considering the band gap and VB edges, a possible band energy diagram is portrayed in Fig. 3h, which also suggests a trailing of conduction band (CB) to a decrement of the band gap. The formation of new states near CB bottom and VB top can be attributed to the  $\text{Ti}^{3+}$  and oxygen vacancies, respectively. Although the band gap and absorption are more favorable for RT-MH-0.75 compared to RT-MH-0.5, the photocatalytic activity is reverse. This behavior can be explained by accounting electron-hole

recombination as one of the major controlling factors [11] measured by photoluminescence (PL) spectra, which demonstrated the lowest radiative recombination of RT-MH 0.5 (Fig. S8).

The chemical environment of ‘H’ in the reduced samples was studied by  $^1\text{H}$  solid-state NMR (Fig. 4a–f). WT shows only one sharp peak at  $\sim 5.2$  ppm which is mainly attributed to the surface hydroxyl group on anatase  $\text{TiO}_2$  due to atmospheric water absorption. This signal arises at  $\sim 5.6$  ppm for RT-MH-0.5. The observed peak shifting and broadening can be ascribed to bridging ‘H’ to different crystallographic planes and indicate the presence of disorder phases [46]. The reduced sample also exhibits another 6 peaks, which are absent in WT and thus, indicate major chemical environmental changes during  $\text{MgH}_2$  reduction. These signals are indicating the presence of  $\text{Ti}-\text{H}$  and surface -OH species (Table S3). More importantly, the signal at  $\sim 0.66$  ppm indicates H



**Fig. 5.** Performance stability and activity in sea water. Stability study for 0.25% Pt-loaded RT-MH-0.5 for (a) continuous H<sub>2</sub> production and (b) long-term H<sub>2</sub> production in different days under simulated sunlight from methanol-water. (c) Continuous H<sub>2</sub> production profile from seawater and (d) rates observed in different times for H<sub>2</sub> production from seawater (20% methanol) by using 0.25% Pt-loaded RT-MH-0.5 under simulated sunlight (AM 1.5 G, 1 Sun).

residing at the position of oxygen vacancy, and the signal at  $\sim 0.78$  suggests the dynamic, rapid exchange of ‘H’ between different environments provided by the disorder phases at the surface of the reduced TiO<sub>2</sub>, which can minimize the recombination of photo-generated electrons and holes by increasing the electron transfer process [36]. Interestingly, the strong peak at  $\sim 0.66$  ppm for replacement or occupation of oxygen vacancies by ‘H’ is not observed or only weakly observed for normal hydrogenation of TiO<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 4d) [46]. However, similar peaks with different intensity ratios were reported for a hydrogenated blue TiO<sub>2</sub> prepared from the mixture of TiO<sub>2</sub> and TiH<sub>2</sub>, which showed almost double photocatalytic activity than that of pristine P25 [36]. Furthermore, the <sup>1</sup>H NMR signals observed for RT-MH-0.5 are dissimilar to the signals obtained for the samples prepared with only H<sub>2</sub>, Mg, and Mg/H<sub>2</sub>. In the currently developed method involving MgH<sub>2</sub>, the ‘H’ replacement can be understood differently. In normal hydrogenation, H<sub>2</sub> reacts with surface O to form water and creates oxygen vacancies, and then ‘H’ can reside at the oxygen vacancies. This can result in the small amount of weakly bounded ‘H’ residing at reduced TiO<sub>2</sub> surface as observed in Fig. 4d, also reported previously [46]. In the case of MgH<sub>2</sub>, upon decomposition at 500 °C, it will produce active “atomic” [Mg] and [H] species in a confined microenvironment, both of which can react with O to create oxygen vacancies. However, the formation free energy of MgO ( $-596.3 \text{ kg mol}^{-1}$ ) is much lower than that of water (gas,  $-228.6 \text{ kg mol}^{-1}$ ). Therefore, the formation of MgO is more favorable than water. Thus, the process can be realized as [Mg] creates the oxygen vacancies easily and then [H] may participate efficiently in the formation of Ti-H-Ti. A schematic of the probable process is presented in Fig. 4g. The formation of Ti-H and Ti-OH species has also been previously realized to improve the absorption and photocatalytic activity under visible light [36,46–51].

Furthermore, different experiments results clearly show that the use of MgH<sub>2</sub> provides more active catalyst compared to only Mg, H<sub>2</sub>, and Mg/H<sub>2</sub> (Fig. S9) which suggests the synergistic effect of active [Mg] and [H] species in-situ produced from MgH<sub>2</sub> decomposition, which makes better photocatalyst than only hydrogenation or Mg reduction. Moreover, this high efficiency of the present photocatalyst system can be attributed to the optimum band gap and band position, enhanced absorption in visible light region, and low recombination, obtained by the synergistic effect of active [Mg] and [H] species in the controlled reducing environments.

The developed Pt/RT-MH-0.5 catalyst system exhibited outstanding performance stability as results presented in Fig. 5a and b (see Fig. S10). The study reveals the outstanding stable performance of continuous 100 h with almost the same r<sub>H<sub>2</sub></sub> (Fig. 5a). A stable H<sub>2</sub> production performance is also observed for 200 h in a period of 75 days (Fig. 5b). TON (turnover number) reached around 122,656 in 100 h for RT-MH-0.5 when a minimum amount of 0.25% Pt was used (Fig. S14). The outstanding stability of RT-MH-0.5 may be accredited to the strong and optimum hydrogen doping on oxygen vacancies as discussed in Fig. 4. The excellent stability, low Pt loading, and high TON can make the developed photocatalyst system cost-effective although it still contains Pt, a high price element. The developed photocatalyst system also showed a continuous production of H<sub>2</sub> up to 24 h (Fig. 5c and d) with a rate of 6.31 mmol g<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup> in simulated sunlight from seawater (20% methanol), the largest water source on earth. Although the activity is comparatively lower than pure water, the results are promising upon consideration of the presence of different salts and microbial components in sea water.

Figs. S11a and b represent the HR-TEM images of the photo-deposited Pt nanoparticles on RT-MH-0.5. They clearly demonstrate the

nicely distributed 2–3 nm Pt nanoparticles throughout the TiO<sub>2</sub> surface, which are further supported by the HR-SEM and elemental mapping. It is obvious that homogeneous distribution of small size Pt nanoparticles further improves the charge (photogenerated electron and hole) transfer process and thus overall activity. The used catalyst was characterized by HR-TEM and HR-SEM after 50 h study. Results show that the Pt nanoparticles and reduce TiO<sub>2</sub> are similar to the fresh catalyst (Figs. S11 and S12). No agglomeration of the Pt nanoparticles was observed, suggesting that a strong interaction between reduced H:TiO<sub>2-x</sub> surface and photo-deposited Pt nanoparticles provides robust photocatalyst system. There was also no significant change (Fig. S13) in the absorbance spectra and color of RT-MH-0.5 sample prepared by MgH<sub>2</sub> reduction even after 3 months when stored in closed sample vial without any extra precaution in normal atmosphere.

#### 4. Conclusions

The present work demonstrates a highly stable and efficient reduced H-doped TiO<sub>2-x</sub> photocatalyst system for sunlight-induced H<sub>2</sub> production from methanol-water with a quantum yield of 34.6% at 340 nm, 8.66% at 400 nm, 3.95% at 420 nm, and 2.01% at 454 nm. The catalyst system can contain a minimum of 0.25% Pt nanoparticles, and a high TON of 122,656 was calculated for 100 h. The high activity is attributed to the enhanced absorption with lowered band gap and lower recombination due to optimum Ti<sup>3+</sup>, oxygen vacancies, and H doping by the synergistic effect of dual reducing species ([Mg] and [H]) in a confined microenvironment from the decomposition of MgH<sub>2</sub>. The catalyst system also showed efficient H<sub>2</sub> production from seawater in simulated sunlight. Moreover, the current study reveals that control modification of TiO<sub>2</sub> can achieve a furthermore effective visible light as well as sunlight photocatalyst system. Concerning the present requirements of sunlight-induced H<sub>2</sub> production photocatalyst system with high efficiency and stability, the reported work can be considered as a significant achievement with simple preparation approach.

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#### Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary material related to this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2018.06.030>.

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